DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 347 831 FL 020 495

AUTHOR Sorenson, Paul Bryan
TITLE The Pronunciation Pictures Videotape: Teaching Initial English Consonants.
PUB DATE May 92
NOTE 57p.; M.A. Thesis, Biola University.
PUB TYPE Dissertations/Theses - Masters Theses (042) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Annotated Bibliographies; *Consonants; *English (Second Language); Inservice Teacher Education; Instructional Materials; *Language Skills; Listening Skills; *Oral Language; *Pronunciation; Second Language Learning; Teaching Methods; *Videotape Recordings; Vocabulary

ABSTRACT

After a review of the historical background, theories, and techniques related to teaching English pronunciation, this study describes the production of a Pronunciation Pictures videotape. The videotape shows animated "Sammy" diagrams presenting the physical movements needed to produce the initial consonants of English. The lessons provide explanations of the pronunciation process for each of the consonant segmentals followed by a vowel. Listening proficiency is developed by means of discrimination exercises. Minimal pair pronunciation practice is provided with both vocabulary lists and sentences. Each lesson concludes with a homework assignment to build upon the segmentals presented. A section of the report on pronunciation teaching materials includes three annotated bibliographies and two annotated lists in the following categories: videodisc and CD-ROM computer programs, computer assisted language learning, video cameras, videotapes for teaching English-as-a-Second Language (ESL), and teacher training videotapes. Contains 28 references. (LB)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED347831

THE PRONUNCIATION PICTURES VIDEOTAPE: TEACHING INITIAL ENGLISH CONSONANTS

A Thesis

Presented to

the Faculty of the School of Intercultural Studies

Department of TESOL and Applied Linguistics

Biola University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts in TESOL

---

by

Paul Bryan Sorenson

May 1992

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Paul Sorenson

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☒ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

FL020495

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Copyright © 1992 by Paul Bryan Sorenson

ABSTRACT

THE PRONUNCIATION PICTURES VIDEOTAPE:
TEACHING INITIAL ENGLISH CONSONANTS

Paul Bryan Sorenson

The Pronunciation Pictures videotape lessons is a production of animated "Sammy" diagrams presenting the physical movements needed to produce the initial consonants of English. The lessons provide explanations of the pronunciation process for each of the consonant segmentals followed by a vowel. Listening proficiency is developed by means of discrimination exercises. Minimal pair pronunciation practice is provided withboth vocabulary lists and sentences. Each lesson concludes with a homework assignment to build upon the segmentals presented.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract iii

Acknowledgments v

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION 1

Historical Background 1

Theories 6

Techniques 13

CHAPTER 2: PRONUNCIATION TEACHING MATERIALS 18

Videodisc and CD-ROM Computer Programs 18
Annotated Bibliography 19

Computer Assisted Language Learning 23
Annotated Bibliography 24

Video Cameras 30
Annotated Bibliography 30

Videotapes For Teaching ESL 32
Annotated Listing 33

Teacher Training Videotapes 37
Annotated Listing 37

CHAPTER 3: THE PRONUNCIATION PICTURES VIDEOTAPE 40

Rationale For The Pronunciation Pictures Project 42

Rationale For The Lecture 44

Rationale For The Minimal Pair Drill 46

Rationale For The Animated Pictures 49

REFERENCES CITED 52

VIDEO TAPE: The Pronunciation Pictures ..... back cover

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to acknowledge the contributions of those who helped me produce the videotape. Ray Kidd was the computer advisor who helped me every step of the way. Michael Petros donated his day off to film me at the Glendale College. David Russell allowed me to use the video editing machine in the BIOLA University media center. And Dana, my wife, endured several months of my working on the computer late at night

The greatest acknowledgment is to the One who made it all possible; Jesus Christ changed a high school drop-out into a university graduate. He is worthy of acknowledgment for every good thing seen in me. I will love Him and serve Him forever!

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Teaching the pronunciation of English as a second language is a field of instruction in which differing ideologies have been discussed. The methodology handed down from one generation of instructors to the next is not always accepted by the latter. Teachers sometimes ask the theoretical rationale justifying the methodology used by their predecessors. The results of such evaluations are the production of new theories and new methodologies designed to meet the needs. As teachers reflect on the state of the art of teaching pronunciation, they need to know the historical background involved which produced the present conditions.

Historical Background

Understanding the history of the teaching of English pronunciation begins with the origins of the language itself. Kreidler (1989) presents a brief history of the English language, beginning with immigrants from Europe to the island of Britain in the fifth century AD. The domination of what is now England and Scotland by these European immigrants caused their language to become the language of the people in the centuries which followed. London grew to become the political and commercial capital, and with such growth, the London dialect became the norm for written English.

Later, during the industrial revolution of the nineteenth century, the form of British English which was to be called Received Pronunciation became the form spoken by the middle class. The British Broadcasting

Corporation has made this form of English the form used by announcers in the twentieth century, and most foreigners learn this same form today.

The use of the English language in America has a different history from that of England. In North America English began as the language of the people who themselves came from the British Isles. People who later came from other countries learned English as the language of North America.

Most of the people who learned to speak English as a second language learned it as a result of assimilation. Immigrants who came into contact with the English speaking majority needed to learn the language as quickly as possible. The ways in which people learned to speak English in North America hundreds of years ago are not well known, but the total immersion approach was probably the norm.

The information available on the teaching theories and techniques developed over the last hundred years is more easily researched. Richards and Rogers (1986) wrote about the reform movement which took place among language teaching specialists in the 1880s. Reading comprehension, grammar, and literary appreciation had been the goals of the language learning programs. However, educators recognized the need for speaking proficiency to receive more attention in the classroom. Therefore, linguists introduced the educators to phonetics, which is the scientific analysis and description of the sound system. As a result, speech was shown to be the primary form of language and, therefore, should be the focus of attention.

The Direct Method was an outgrowth of the shift in emphasis. Classroom instruction was to be given in the target language through demonstration and action. Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasized, although grammar was to be taught inductively. Accuracy of

pronunciation became the emphasis of language instruction. The Direct Method was popular in the private schools of Europe where student motivation was high, and teachers were willing to create the disciplined environment. The public schools, however, did not accept the Direct Method since the demands were too great. In the United States, the foreign language programs of the 1930s determined to have reading be the primary goal of instruction.

The low priority assigned to the teaching of pronunciation skills in the foreign language classroom has continued. Pronunciation instruction has been a skill reserved for private schools and personal tutors. Commenting on the state of the art some thirty years ago, Bowen (1972) writes:

> Some thirty years ago, foreign language classes in the United States were largely concerned with teaching students to read. Pronunciation was a low priority skill, usually presented by a quick run through of the alphabet to illustrate the characteristic sound or sounds associated with each letter. (p. 101)

Wardhaugh (1974) presents a short history of the teaching of English, describing the present state of the art as it has developed out of recent theoretical developments. The Audiolingual Method was the last major breakthrough which had occurred in foreign language teaching some thirty years ago. The structural approach to language learning was combined with the ideas of habit formation found in behaviorism. The idea originated with the linguistic approach which described the contrastive systems of phonology and grammar within languages. The method of instruction was: listening skills first, followed by pronunciation, and then reading and writing skills. Drills, pattern practice, and memorization were the techniques of instruction.

Audiolingualism was used in the 1940s as a training method for the military. Soldiers were trained intensively for ten hours a day, six days a week. The program sessions for six weeks each. The small classes of highly motivated students achieved excellent results. The "Army Method" showed that students can attain conversational proficiency in a variety of foreign languages.

Audiolingualism came under attack in the mid-1960s. The theoretical foundations were questioned when the results failed in producing the success promised. Like the direct method, the Army method demanded more of the students and the teacher than could be accomplished in the short time the average class meets. One of the critics of Audiolingualism was Noam Chomsky who revolutionized linguistics with his publication of Syntactic Structures in 1957. Chomsky presented the Generative-transformational theory, which Wardhaugh (1974) summarized as follows:

> Generative-transformational theory stresses the creative, rule-governed nature of the linguistic knowledge of a native speaker and attempts to set up criteria by which various models of this knowledge may be evaluated. These models have been called competence models in that they are concerned with ideal linguistic behavior in an ideal setting. They are not concerned with performance, that is actual linguistic behavior, nor are they concerned with the psychological processes. Linguistic competence is said to underlie linguistic performance and to explain part of that performance; grammars themselves are not to be taken as performance models. (p. 118)

Teachers of pronunciation who accepted Chomsky's ideas of competence over performance stopped trying to produce accuracy of pronunciation in their students. Stimulating the underlying competence and creative mental powers within the students became more important. Pronunciation classes which formerly focused on correct production of the sounds began to give more attention to teaching communicative skills. The

goal was to produce students using the communicative competence within. Pronunciation teachers are now encouraged to teach communicative strategies rather than the actual production of the sounds. Instead of teaching the segmental features of English, such as the individual vowel and consonant sounds, there has been an emphasis upon teaching the suprasegmental features, such as stress, rhythm, and intonation. The focus of attention is now on producing fluency of speech rather than accuracy.

The evaluation of the foreign language teaching approaches also brought into question the matter of context. Naiman (1987) wrote on this subject and was pleased to observe the shift in emphasis taking place in the field of pronunciation instruction. English pronunciation is linked to meaning at the discourse level and should be practiced with this in mind. The shift in teaching emphasis presents pronunciation to students in a meaningful context and practices it as real language.

The change in emphasis has helped pronunciation students get beyond the barrier of feeling they must be completely accurate before they use the language. The former emphasis upon accuracy inhibited more than it helped the students. Students would not use the language since they feared producing an incorrectly pronounced word. Fluency development, on the other hand, encourages students to communicate as much as possible, and thereby develop their pronunciation skills.

The purpose of this historical perspective has been to lay a foundation with some of the historical events which have contributed to the present state of the art. The theories and teaching techniques associated with pronunciation instruction can only be fully appreciated when the historical background involved is understood.

Theories

Theories of learning pronunciation are closely connected to the history of pronunciation teaching. This is because the changing of times brings with it a changing of thoughts and ideas. Every major theoretical development has had an impact upon the educational system. Theories related to the teaching of pronunciation deal with such subjects as: how people learn and how teachers teach, when and to what degree language learning ceases and fossilization occurs, and what goals should be set by teachers for the students. The theoretical background involved in the teaching of English pronunciation is important to understand before the techniques and methodologies can be properly presented. Whenever a new theory about the learning of language is presented, it has an effect upon those who teach as well as those who learn the language. The E.S.L. pronunciation instructor has been the recipient of a wide range of theories about how students learn.

The Generative Grammar theory regards language as a whole rather than separate skill areas to be taught. Kreidler (1989) writes that in the generative grammar theory the focus is to be upon the competence of the speaker and the knowledge which makes him or her capable of producing and interpreting the language. Therefore, phonology should not be taught separate from morphology and syntax since they are all integrated. The theories which have developed in the past have been instrumental in determining how students are instructed in the classroom. Researchers focused their attention on learning and produced several hypotheses on the subject. One such hypothesis addresses the difference between adults' and children's ability to learn a second language.

Lenneberg (1967) proposed a "critical period" for the ability to acquire a language which would end at the age of puberty. The reason for this loss of ability at the age of puberty is a biological change which takes place within the brain. Lenneberg maintains that the hemispheric lateralization and the end of cerebral plasticity were the causes of the variation in ability to acquire language. This has been a topic of research since it was first proposed in 1967, and the debate over this issue has continued up to the present.

Another hypothesis addressing the issue of ability to learn language was presented by Schumann (1975) who looked to affective factors as being the cause of loss of ability among adult language learners. According to Schumann, adults are more prone to anxiety and lack of self-confidence when learning language. Worrying about accuracy and questioning his or her own ability to learn the target language produces inhibitions which interfere with the learning process. As a result of such affective factors, the adult language learner normally does not achieve high levels of conversational flunecy.

Schumann (1976) also wrote concerning the social distance factors involved in language learning. The social, psychological, and cultural distances between the learner and the target language group are all proposed to be determinative of how well the language is learned. Motivation is also included under this topic. If the student is seeking to integrate into the target language culture, motivation will be higher than if the language is merely being learned to be used as a tool to achieve a secondary purpose.

These theories propose that it is impossible for an adult to obtain a native-like pronunciation in a second language. As a result, new theories addressing the goals and purposes of teaching pronunciation began to be researched and presented for consideration. Kenworthy (1987) wrote

concerning the importance of intelligibility over accuracy as the goal that pronunciation teachers should set for their students. Perfecting of pronunciation has been replaced by the desire to equip students to communicate in an intelligible manner. If the students can be understood when communicating, then the teacher has achieved the desired class goal. The goal of intelligibility is also much easier to evaluate when the teacher monitors a student's progress.

The present condition of the field of teaching is reflective of the many theories which have been imposed upon teachers by the researchers and linguists. The search for more effective ways of instructing students, combined with the theories concerning language learning, has produced confusion and disorganization within the field. This lack of unity has sent both teachers and researchers in search of a point upon which all can agree.

Communicative language learning has evolved out of the theory that learning occurs best in actual communicative situations, rather than in isolated classrooms where the teacher does most of the talking. The characteristics of communicative language learning now encompass most aspects of the ESL teaching taking place today. Students are now to be provided creative opportunities for meaningful exchange of language. In the communicative, student-centered classroom, students should be provided with authentic language materials and should be engaged in meaningful interchange of language beyond the word and sentence level. Naiman (1987), speaking about teaching pronunciation communicatively, lists the crucial characteristics.

1. meaningful practice beyond the word level.
2. task orientation of classroom activities.
3. development of strategies for learning beyond the classroom.
4. peer correction and group work
5. student-centered classroom. (p. 142)

These characteristics are applicable to the needs of the students, and allow the students to assume an active role in the classroom. An example of this would be role playing a situation the students might encounter in American society, such as eating in a restaurant. The students could develop a dialog by interacting in small groups. Each group could present the role play with evaluations conducted by the peers who point out the strengths and weaknesses of each presentation. This type of an activity allows the students an opportunity to build strategies for future encounters in the real world.

Another theory is contextualization, which suggests that materials be presented in a way which is more reflective of the real world. Bowen (1972) wrote his views on contextualized pronunciation as follows:

> Productive contextualization suggests: (a) pronunciation features and contrasts should carry meaning with minimum redundancy that will offer additional clues affecting interpretation; i.e., the student should have to rely on what s/he hears (and produces) rather than on an intelligent estimate of what the situation calls for; (b) situations should be meaningfully related to student interest and/or experience; (c) the repetition of specific drills and situations should be minimized; (d) the language and style of pronunciation exercise material should be convincingly natural and realistic; and (e) at least some exercises should be designed to give practice when the student's attention is on the content rather than the form of the message. (p. 101)

Bowen's ideas are similar to Naiman's and could also be applied in a role play situation. Bowen, however, mentions drills and contrasts as still having a place in the pronunciation classroom. Contextualized pronunciation practice should be taken into consideration by every teacher when preparing the class syllabus. Too many classes fail to make the

connection between the materials and techniques in class and real life situations encountered outside of the classroom. Another theory concerning the way students learn language proposes building self-correcting and self-monitoring skills. Students equipped with these skills continue to develop their pronunciation on their own after the class has finished. Firth (1987) wrote on the subject and referred to the lack of retention or "carry-over" among pronunciation students as a sign of something lacking in the instruction process. Instructors are advised to develop strategies which will allow the students to self-correct and self-monitor. When students have errors pointed out they should be able to self-correct and not expect to have the correction provided.

The self-correcting takes place when errors are pointed out to the student. Self-monitoring skills, on the other hand, allow students to listen for and recognize errors within their own speech. The proposed strategies for building these skills would include: building student motivation toward accuracy, providing explanations and demonstrations which are understood and retained, adequate practice opportunities, and feedback which is accurate and supportive coming from both the teacher and peers. Firth believes an emphasis on these four items in the classroom will equip students to self-monitor for the remainder of their language learning experience.

The recent theories concerning pronunciation instruction have been critical of the materials being used, such as lists of minimal pairs and practice sentences. Further criticism has addressed the form of instruction used, such as presenting vocabulary drills and detailed explanations of oral manipulation. The suprasegmentals have been elevated to be of equal or

greater importance than the segmentals. McNerney (1987) addressed this subject with the following statement:

> We believe that the traditional approach to teaching pronunciation gives priority to the wrong aspects of pronunciation. This stems from a failure to grasp the importance of suprasegmentals i.e., stress and intonation in the communication of meaning in spoken language. A short term pronunciation course should focus first and foremost on suprasegmentals as they have the greatest impact on the comprehensibility of the learner's English. We have found that giving priority to the suprasegmental aspects of English not only improves learners' comprehensibility but is also less frustrating for students because greater change can be effected. (p. 132)

Much of the pronunciation instruction occurring can be traced to one of two basic foundations; either a view which sees pronunciation as a skill to be perfected within the students, or a view which sees perfect pronunciation as an impossibility for second language students. Stevick (1976) made a similar division concerning the ways in which pronunciation teaching can be viewed. The "analytical" view of pronunciation is oriented toward viewing language teaching as one kind of applied linguistics. The aim of such a view is accuracy of the phonemes, and the teacher can therefore identify discrete features of students' speech which are incorrect.

Stevick calls the second view of pronunciation the "holistic" view, and describes it as follows:

> The second point of view takes pronunciation as a continuum. Although no two voices are identical, the nonnative may produce his utterances, his intonations and rhythms, his vowels and consonants, in ways which are more or less parallel to the patterns that are shared among native speakers. This is a matter of degree, with no sharp dividing lines between correct and incorrect. (p. 52)

The theories which hold that an adult language learner will never master the pronunciation of the language cite differing causes, such as the

physical, mental, and social restraints. Theories which believe perfection is possible cite examples of perfected pronunciation in students who participated in experimental research. The following are records from such research.

Neufeld (1987) challenged Scovel's (1969) theory of biological constraints on pronunciation learning when he presented experimental evidence in which language learners achieved native-like pronunciation of a second language. Neufeld proposed that psycholinguistic factors were the cause of the variation between adult and child language learning ability. Neufeld calls for further research to be done on this important topic, and comments on his own findings:

> All we have demonstrated is that highly motivated university students, accustomed to the routine and paraphernalia of psychological experimentation, can acquire native-like proficiency in the sound patterns of another language in an artificial learning situation. (p. 331)

Another researcher, Seliger (1975), working with pronunciation students, found that those who had learned to speak the target language with no foreign accent also demonstrated greater acculturation desires. The particular students were also shown to have relatively few close friends who spoke with the same first language as they did. The implication is that a disassociation from the native language and other speakers of that language is instrumental in producing proficiency in the target language. The theory behind the immersion technique proposes an association with the target language culture, and speaking only the target language, but a disassociation from the native language and culture must also occur.

Studies on the affective variables find empathy to be significant and also the degree of socialization at the time of puberty. One researcher, Selinger

(1976), even attributed his love for people as a possible determinative factor in his successful language learning experiences. Commenting from an empirical knowledge of his own experiences of language learning, he said:

> In all modern languages that I have studied, with one exception, my pronunciation has ranged between superior or native-like. (The same cannot be said for my vocabulary or my fluency). Whether this is matched by my ability to empathize, or whether it is a result of general xenophilia, or whether empathy and xenophilia run hand in hand, I cannot say. (p. 56)

This section has mentioned several theories of language and how they have had an impact on the teaching of pronunciation. The next section will look more closely at some of the techniques used in the classroom to teach this language skill.

Techniques

A technique is an activity which takes place in the classroom to accomplish the goals for the class. All of the techniques used are to be in harmony with the selected overall plan for the class. The techniques used in the pronunciation classroom today are an outgrowth of the theories and techniques of the last generation. The differing viewpoints concerning pronunciation instruction have produced a wide range of methods and techniques to select from. Some of the techniques being used by pronunciation teachers have been borrowed from linguistic research. The listening skill development techniques were used by linguistic researchers before pronunciation teachers introduced them to their students. Some of the items teachers use to focus on accuracy, such as face diagrams and mirrors, also originated in the linguistic research laboratory. Teachers and researchers of pronunciation are aware of the diversity of techniques being practiced in the classroom. Bowen (1972) presents five of the various techniques being

used. First there is the model and imitation technique. A second technique is explanation, in which the teacher tries to guide the student by telling him or her how to produce troublesome sounds, how to manipulate his or her speech organs, or what characteristics the sound should have when produced. A third technique is practice. Applications are seen in example sentences that provide multiple opportunities to produce a sound. A fourth technique is comparison and contrast, in which two similar but significantly contrasting sounds are taught together. A fifth technique is a combination of modeling, explanation, comparison, mimicry, and practice.

As mentioned earlier, linguists and psychologists used some of these techniques in their work before language teachers adopted or adapted them for use in the classroom. The use of minimal pairs, discrimination tasks, and stimulus-response drills are some of the borrowed techniques. Pronunciation practice drills are found in most textbooks and are used in the classroom as a regular part of the lesson plan. Presenting the sounds to the students in the form of drills for the students to hear and repeat allows for more exposure and practice of that sound. Teachers are not in complete agreement as to how to use drills in the classroom. Some teachers feel that the students need as much practice saying the sounds as possible within the classroom. Other teachers desire to build upon other features of pronunciation and use drill briefly, if at all. There are also many variations of drills. Some drills present lists of isolated vocabulary items, while others seek to make them more contextualized. Bowen (1972) wrote on the use of contextualization in the pronunciation class:

> I suggest that the context for the minimal pair should be an entire situation, supported and reinforced by reasonable and credible visual images, and placed in a setting that can hope to provide a measure of intellectual stimulus and interest. The dull recitations that characterize most pronunciation lessons need to be markedly upgraded if there is to be any hope of solid improvement in classroom performance and any promise of carry-over in out-of-class competence. (p. 105)

An example of this would be using pictures to build a narrative which contextualizes the minimal pair being practiced. Bowen provides an example of a technique which has been successful in the classroom. The students develop a narrative from pictures of a blacksmith working on a horseshoe. The teacher guides the conversation to center on the minimal pair, hit and heat. A game is played at the conclusion to see if the students can understand the pronunciation of another student saying, "He is hitting the shoe." or "He is heating the shoe." The technique has potential for those teachers who are willing to try something new.

The communicative approach emphasizes teaching the students to use the language in everyday situations. The techniques used in the classroom seek to equip the students for using what they have learned. The accuracy movement, on the other hand, emphasizes teaching the individual sounds. If the students are not understood due to inadequate pronunciation practice, then major communication break-downs occur as well as an increase in the amount of student anxiety and inhibition.

Finocchiaro (1974) wrote concerning the need for students to receive more practice producing the individual sounds. Students need to develop the habits of using their vocal organs sometimes in completely new ways, quickly and correctly. Drills provide the needed practice for students to become familiar with the new sounds.

Pronunciation teachers need to establish a balance between using techniques which focus on producing accuracy and other techniques which equip the students for communicative interaction outside of the classroom.

The teaching of listening in the pronunciation classroom is another technique. The theory behind this technique proposes that one must hear and perceive the differing sounds in the target language before one can produce those sounds. Kenworthy (1987) believes it is part of the role of the teacher to help the learners perceive sounds. Learners tend to hear the sounds of English in terms of the sounds of their native language. Teachers must therefore check to see that their learners are hearing sounds according to the appropriate categories and help them to develop new categories if necessary.

The traditional way of teaching listening proficiency is to give the students opportunities to hear all the members of the new sound system. The new sounds can be taught together with the sounds of the student's mother tongue if all the students share the same native language. This allows for better discrimination abilities to develop. Diagrams of the different places of articulation are also useful in demonstrating sounds. For example, if teachers want to show the difference in tongue position between /th/ and /f/, they can show the students Sammy diagrams. Jull (1987) wrote concerning the use of diagrams:

> Sammy diagrams are particularly useful in demonstrating the place of articulation of sounds that cannot be seen by looking at the mouth, such as the final /ng/ in sing. In this case, the diagram can illustrate that the back of the tongue is involved in the articulation of the sound. (p. 120)

Teachers often sympathize with the frustration their students' experience living in a foreign environment where everyone speaks too fast.

Unfortunately, the teacher's own sympathy may be adding to the problem. For instance, teachers often condescend to the students in a low level class and speak highly simplified English at a slow speed. The students may appear to be doing well and learning, but when they leave the classroom they encounter English spoken in the outside world at the same incomprehensible speed as before. The students have thus not been adequately prepared since the teacher has presented a type of English which is in some ways as foreign as that used by the students.

The sampling of techniques just presented demonstrates the diversity of activities taking place in pronunciation classrooms. However, with the current emphasis on communicative activities instead of on the more traditional development of segmental pronunciation, some students are leaving the ESL programs speaking an unintelligible English. Sector (1987) wrote about this problem in a Los Angeles Times article about foreign graduate students assisting teachers in university classrooms. The students were not able to understand the assistants when they spoke.

It was because of the incorrect segmental phoneme pronunciation occurring in students that the Pronunciation Pictures videotape project was conceived. The emphasis on communicative and suprasegmental pronunciation teaching approaches has affected the teaching materials, as well as the techniques used in the classroom. The next section will present a sampling of the variety of materials being used to teach ESL, and specifically ESL pronunciation.

CHAPTER 2

PRONUNCIATION TEACHING MATERIALS

The materials that pronunciation teachers have available to them today are in greater supply and of a larger selection than they have ever been before. Teachers not only have a larger selection of printed materials, but the electronic devices which aid instruction are astonishing. The last generation of instructors enjoyed using audio cassette recorders and overhead projectors as state of the art devices in the classroom to aid instruction. Teachers today, however, have access to video cassette recorders and camcorders as well as a large selection of videotapes which teach pronunciation. Computer labs which host interactive videodisc technology are being used by pronunciation teachers. Computers can record the students' pronunciation and then provide an instant evaluation of their performance. In addition, there are now programs specifically designed to teach pronunciation using a computer.

The following information will provide a general introduction to each of the pieces of equipment just mentioned. An annotated bibliography on each topic will address some of the written materials discussing the items, other bibliographies are provided in some sections to list some of the materials as well as further readings available.

Videodisc and CD-ROM Computer Programs

The interactive videodisc operates with a computer program and a CD player. With the CD player the computer can go to any location on the disc and stop on any particular frame. The twelve-inch compact disc can contain 54,000 still picture frames, and the computer can go from the first to the last

frame in 1.5 seconds. This allows the student to be an active participant in the viewing of materials. The students' progress is recorded on a disc for the teacher to monitor progress. The software written for English students can offer multiple selections for a student to choose from. A pronunciation program may teach the segmentals one day and the suprasegmentals another day. Students can listen to a sample of native speech, record their voice repeating the same, and have a comparison provided by the computer. Other interactive features are games and tests which focus on pronunciation. Examples of this technological development can be seen in places such as museums and department stores. The viewer is presented with an opening screen explaining the presentation, and is then told to make a selection of more specified information. The selecting device could be a keyboard, or it could be a heat sensing screen that tells the viewer to press their choice on the screen. Interactive video is new to the market, and still being developed in the ESL field. The following is a brief bibliography of the some information available:

Annotated Bibliography:

Moisan, R. (1986). Videodiscs and their use in language teaching: Current research. Bulletin of the CAAL, 8, 125-136.

This article sums up research on videodiscs gathered in a joint project between IBM and Universite Laval in Montreal. Definitions and various uses are provided as well. The use of the videodisc for instruction in general is explained, followed by an application and a description of its use in language learning in particular. Documents on several prototypes of the interactive

videodisc which were used in language learning are provided. The author concludes with the future of the videodisc being discussed.

Otto, S. (1983). Videodisc image retrieval for language teaching. System, 11, 47-52.

This article is about the use of videodiscs to build a database of still images for vocabulary building. The author begins by explaining the superiority of the videodisc compared to other forms of media. The use of visuals in language teaching is recognized as a valuable method, and therefore an upgrade to videodiscs is explained as being an even more effective way of using this proven method. The author then goes into a more descriptive explanation of how to build a visual library on videodisc. This is where the image retrieval process is explained as being so crucial to the program development. The last section of the article discusses some applications of this database in the language classroom.

Schmidt, H. (1989). Real conversation as a motivational factor through interactive video. Canadian Modern Language Review, 45, 329-338.

This article presents the results of the first Canadian field-tested interactive video for language learners. The results mentioned in this article were an increase in students' motivation, effort, and drive. The author begins the article by listing some pros and cons of the interactive videodisc system as they relate to language instruction. Then the article shows how students' efforts and drive were increased by this interaction with `real conversation' as it appeared on the interactive videodisc. The article is another source of actual recorded research in favor of this new development.

Schneider, E., & Bennion, J. (1983). Veni, vidi, vici via videodisc: A simulator for instructional conversations. System, 11, 41-46.

The authors of this article begin by presenting the benefits of using the videodisc with groups or for individualized instruction. The main body of the article is about a project done at the Brigham Young University in which the authors constructed two synthetic environments for advanced students to improve their linguistic skills and cultural understanding. The two environments were a Mexican town, and a working day in the life of a Mexican worker who works in a Northern U.S. industrial plant. The authors tell of the construction of the project and then how it was used in the classroom. In conclusion, they give more benefits and some cost cutting ideas. The article is interesting reading and provides ideas for the creative instructor.

Schneider, E., & Bennion, J. (1981) Videodiscs. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications.

This book is written to orient the reader to the new field of videodisc use in the classroom. The first chapter is `What is videodisc? How does it work?' and provides information on the hardware involved. Next, the authors deal with applications of the videodisc first to education in general, and then to the classroom specifically. The authors provide suggestions for group work and the construction of an information disc on specific topics. The disc could contain all forms of media, from slides to movies to computer graphics. Further suggestions for individualized instruction are provided later. The economic considerations are presented in such a way that the videodisc is shown to be a better buy when compared to all the media it can

replace and upgrade. After some further hardware considerations, the authors conclude with instructions on how to develop customized videodiscs for classes and perhaps even how to market them. Final remarks are given about the future of videodisc and how educators must take advantage of the opportunity.

Scott, T., Jolly, Y., & O'Brien, N. (1989). Interactive videodisc in computer-assisted language learning: A communicative project. System, 17, 49-60.

This is an article about an interactive videodisc program designed in Japan at a university for business students, with the help of the Sony Corporation. The VIEW (Visual information Enhanced Workstation) project was a year and a half in the making. The finished project mixes video images, audio, text, and graphics together at high speed in any combination. The designers decided to use a trip to the States by a Japanese businessman as the storyline of their program. They made the demands of operating the program as easy as possible to reduce anxiety, yet provided ten different scenes common to business travel to keep it interesting. The program operates with varying levels of difficulty; there are several levels of definition provided when a text is questioned by the student.

As students begin the program, their previous scores are shown on the screen. They are then presented with a choice of eight activities from which to choose: Blank Filling, Comprehensive Quiz, What Happened?, Word Scramble, Action Word Scramble, Find The Question, and Dialog Roleplay. Each of these activities is built upon the storyline of the businessman's trip to

the United States, providing visual, audio, and written texts for the students to interact with.

The conclusion of the article notes a reduction of "Error Terror" encountered by Japanese students, who often fear losing face in the normal language classroom. With the interactive videodisc they can freely ask and answer questions in the privacy of their workstation.

Sutherland, R. (1987). Inexpensive use of the videodisc for proficiency: An attempt to link technology and teachers. CALICO Journal, 4, 67-80.

This article provides information on how to use the videodisc technology inexpensively when it is used to help foreign language students become proficient. Information on how to obtain inexpensive foreign language discs is provided. The author then describes how to combine disc materials with a text to produce a proficiency-oriented syllabus. Next a simple technique for individualizing instructions on a disc is provided. The conclusion of the article refers to a case study in which students learned German with individualized instruction provided on videodisc.

Computer Assisted Language Learning

The acronym CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) has become a commonly used term among ESL instructors. In language learning labs, where formerly the cassette tape player was the main piece of equipment for students to use, computers are now becoming more commonplace. Students can now interact with programs on computers which are designed to strengthen all of their English language skills. The amount of software written to teach English is growing rapidly. Entire catalogs present teachers with the variety of educational software available today. The computer is not

restricted to the learning lab, either; teachers now use the computer as a regular part of their classroom routine. Computers can now be plugged into overhead projectors which cast an enlarged image of the computer screen onto a movie screen for all the class to see. There are also movie projectors which can have computers plugged into them.

Students can use computers to strengthen any of their English skills. Reading and writing have continued to be the stronger attractions of CALL, but software has also been developed to help promote the skills of listening and speaking. An example of such would be the `Visi-Pitch' program. Pronunciation skills are developed using this computer program which displays a graphic drawing of the sounds produced by the speaker.

Annotated Bibliography:

Brumifit, C. (1985). Computers in English language teaching: A view from the classroom. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

This book provides an introduction to what CALL is and some of the applications to English language teaching that were being made in 1985. Information on a case study is provided from a school that set up a computer network to be used in the EFL instruction program. The final part of the book helps answer some common questions, such as, should teachers write programs? The book is good reading for a general orientation.

Chapelle, C. (1990). The Discourse of computer-assisted language learning: Toward a context for descriptive research. TESOL Quarterly, 27, 199-225

This article addresses the lack of uniformity in the terminology used by those who write about CALL. The need for valid statistics when testing the uses of CALL is also addressed. In light of the problems mentioned, the author proposes using a discourse analysis system developed by Coulthard and Sinclair (1975). Using this system on a universal basis would provide the necessary elements and structures to describe CALL discourse, analyze data from student-computer interaction, and compare CALL activities with other classroom activities. The article is interesting and informative on a subject needing much more attention in the CALL field.

Chapelle, C., & Misuono, S. (1989). Students' strategies with learner-controlled CALL. CALICO Journal, 7, 25-47.

This is a report on a study conducted with foreign students using CALL to learn grammar at the Iowa State University. The testing investigated the learning strategies used by the students. The authors looked at five strategies: resourcing (requesting help), practice, self-monitoring (checking and editing), self-management (selecting the type of materials to work on), and self-evaluating (assessing one's own learning and learning needs). The study concluded with the results that some of the students used some of the strategies some of the time. The authors acknowledged that the concluding results of their study were weak, but the article is a good source of recorded data on the type of CALL research being conducted.

Dunkel, P. (1986). The effectiveness literature on CAI/CALL and computing: Implications of the research for limited English proficient learners. TESOL Quarterly, 20, 367-371.

This is an article written about the use of computers in education and their possible uses in the ESL class. The introduction notes the lack of empirical research documenting the claims that computer assisted instruction would benefit ESL students and teachers. The author notes research from testing that had been conducted on native English speaking students. The test results of the native students with limited English proficieny were refered to as having possible implications for the ESL students. Some of the reported results were; better test scores, higher enthusiasm, faster learning, and greater pretest/posttest score improvements. In conclusion, the author notes the need for more research. The article is a good source of data on the benefits of CAI.

Elman, J., & Zipser, D. (1988). Learning the hidden structure of speech. The Journal of Acoustical Society of America, 83, 1615-1626.

This article addresses a study conducted on a new computer program which has the ability to accurately label sounds, recognize unlabeled sounds, and learn feature representations of continuous speech. The test results showed that the program was 95% accurate when labeling and that it was able to segment and delineate sounds in continuous speech. This process is called back-propagation and is still in its preliminary stages of development. The program has great potential in the field of applied linguistics. The article is interesting reading to both computer users and linguists.

Hertz, R. (1987). Computers in the language classroom. Reading, MA.: Addison Wesley.

This is a text written to introduce the reader to the uses of computers in the classroom. The author also discusses his own software which has been proven to be very effective with ESL students. His programs teach basic grammar and use vocabulary drills. The nine chapters of the text cover such subjects as computer terminology, applications, selection of software, and hardware considerations. The text is written with enough depth to maintain interest and yet remains an introductory guide to computers. A teacher new to computers would find it informative.

Higgins, J. J. (1988). Language, learners and computers: Human intelligence and artificial unintelligence. New York: Longman.

John Higgins is one of the experts on the subject of CALL. In this short book he presents his thoughts on the subject, some of which have proven controversial. Higgins explains his viewpoint on why the computer should be the "pedagogue" instead of the "magister." The magister is one who processes and thus controls the flow of knowledge, versus the pedagogue as one who provides challenges and needed information when asked to do so. Higgins views the computer as a tool for students to control. Computers should be worked with and not answered to. The "master versus slave" view of the students working with CALL is argued throughout the book and helps the reader to see the computer in a different light. The book is informative and well written.

Kenning, M. (1989). Developing CALL materials for a multi-media language course. UEA Papers in Linguistics, 29/30, 59-77.

This paper addresses the complex procedures involved in developing CALL materials. The first part addresses the preliminary considerations of understanding the existing aims and guidelines already present in the school wanting to use CALL. Then the basic processes involved in materials design are listed: planning, implementation, and evaluation. Next the author explains five major variables: the kind of activity, the main units of discourse, linguistic forms, language content, and presentation. Understanding the development process helps the reader determine whether or not to design his/her own materials or to buy a program already written for a wide range of students.

Lehmann, D., & Pelfrene, A. (1989). Computers and socialization in the classroom. Etudes de Linguistique Appliquee, 76, 19-37.

This article addresses the lack of use the computer is receiving in the classroom. The author notes how the computer is left to a small part of the whole class program and is used only by individuals. A four-phase approach to involving the whole class in a writing project is then suggested. At first all learners work on the same text in different ways and then on the same text in their own way. Next the learners work on different texts (co-operative autonomy), and finally, though still helped by group discussion, all learners develop their own approach which can be transferred to their reading. The article addresses a need for more programs which involve the whole class. The finished product in this case proved successful in France.

Taylor, M. (1989, June). Computer assisted language learning on the international scene. TESOL NEWSLETTER, 23 (3), 1, 27.

The article reports on an invitational seminar held in London in 1988 by 21 CALL specialists from eight countries. The seminar dealt with "The use, application, and limitations of new computer-based technology." One main concern of the meeting was the need for teacher training in CALL. The participants noted that the computer is now a recognized tool of the trade and that teachers must be ready to effectively use it as such. They then provided a list of objectives to be met within a teacher's initial orientation to CALL. The list provides teacher trainers with information on what should be covered in such an orientation.

Tuman, W. (1990). Computer-enhanced beginning Russian. Foreign Language Annals, 23, 23-31.

This article reports on the effectiveness of a CALL program designed to teach reading and listening comprehension of the Russian language. The program is praised for its ability to combine the difficult to learn written text with the phonics of the language. The program is available for use on both IBM and Macintosh computers. Future modifications promise even more effective uses of this new software. The article is good reading for both computer users and linguists.

Wyatt, D. H. (1984). Computers and ESL. Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

This text is written to orient the reader to the uses of computers in the educational field. The first part of the book gives an overview of CALL in general. The second part deals more specifically with ESL. The skill areas such

as reading, writing, listening and speaking are addressed in this section. The last part of the book deals with the future of CALL and possible sources of further information. The book is good reading for a general introduction to the subject.

Video Cameras

The video camera has become a popular tool for pronunciation teachers to use in the classroom. Students are able to see and hear themselves from a third party perspective when they view the tape. Schools now have video cameras available for the teachers to check out whenever they like. Since the price of camcorders has come down many teachers and students have been able to gain experience operating the camera; therefore, much of the apprehension which kept the equipment from being used has been removed. Teachers can now find a number of articles and books which provide ideas for the uses of the video camera in the classroom.

Annotated Bibliography:

Esmailka, W., & Barnhardt. C.1981. The social organization of participation in three Athabaskan cross-cultural classrooms. Final Report. Alaska University, Fairbanks. Center for Cross-Cultural Studies.

The report documents a study conducted in 1979 to use video tape to study the interaction of teachers and students and to look specifically at the teaching styles of the three Athabaskan teachers at an Interior Alaska Athabaskan community school. The study provides information that would be helpful for faculty and students in the development of guidelines and materials for the cross-cultural teacher training program.

Hall, B. 1990. Camcorders in the classroom: Student production at the secondary level. Hispania, 73, 1137-8.

Using the camcorder in a high school Spanish class had good results. The idea came from some students who had a camcorder at home and asked the teacher if they could do a project instead of an assigned paper. The taped dialogue was a success with all the students, and the teacher found a new source of ideas for teaching.

Orban, C., & McLean, A. Musick. 1990. A working model for video camera use in the foreign language classroom. French Review, 63, 652-63.

The authors offer a working model of exercises and suggestions for integrating the video camera into the foreign-language classroom. Although the video exercises described are intended to build on the various language skills being taught and acquired, the model is flexible and the instructor can use as few or as many of the exercises as is desired to complement other classroom activities.

Pelletier, R. 1991. Prompting spontaneity by means of the video camera in the beginning foreign language class. Foreign Language Annals, 23, 227-233.

This article describes four techniques for using the video camera to generate higher levels of student interest, involvement and productivity in beginning foreign language courses. The techniques include spontaneous discussion of video images, enhancement of students' use of interrogative pronouns and phrases, and grammar instruction.

Quigley, J., & McCollum, S. (1990). Defossilizing adult speech problems: A strategic interaction/ video approach. Newark: English Language Institute at the University of Delaware.

The material presented are an overview of the pronunciation program at the English Language Institute. A video camera is used to record the students pronunciation. Students are later shown the tape in order to do a self-evaluation. Groups meet together and help each other with support and advice after watching the tapes.

Rogers, S. 1987. If I can see myself, I can change. Educational Research, 45, 64-67.

The article explains how the video camera can help build communities of teachers who continuously engage in studying their craft. Videotaped classroom sessions accompanied by peer coaching enables teachers to direct and manage their own professional growth.

Videotapes For Teaching ESL

The video cassette tape player is another technological development which has helped to make the teacher's job more effective. The videotape has become a part of the ESL teacher's materials resources. Most classrooms now come already equipped with a VCR and monitor, or teachers have easy access to one on wheels. The market is being flooded with videotapes on every subject imaginable. The teacher who reads reviews or previews tapes can find materials for any class. How the videotape is used in a particular class depends on the individual teacher using it. A videotape presentation can either be used by the teacher as a teaching aid to be turned on and off as he or

she sees fit, or it can be left to completely dominate the entire class meeting. The following listing gives some of the materials available to ESL instructors.

Annotated Listing:

American culture in modern contexts. (1986). Producers Consortium. Orem, Utah.

These three 60-minute videotapes contain 18 short unit topics on American culture. Topics range from Body English and Personal Space to Concepts of Time. There is a teacher's book which comes with the tapes and provides ideas for using the material. The tapes would be good for an intermediate/advanced ESL class.

American tongues. Alvarez, L., & Kolker, A. (1986). Center for New American Media. New York, N.Y.

This is a 60-minute videotape presentation of the various regional, social and ethical differences in American speech. The tape takes the viewer around the United States to hear the many different forms of English spoken. There is some comparing and contrasting although the teacher could do more if desired. The tape would be good for an advanced class of ESL students.

Encounters. (1988). Pace Group International, Portland, OR.

This set of thirty-two 30-minute videotapes contains sixty-four short lessons covering ninety-six functional skills, such as: answering questions at home and on the job, shopping and making a purchase, and normal everyday conversations with friends. The tapes can be used with all levels ranging from high beginner to advanced students. There are four student books and workbooks which accompany the tape, as well as sixteen audiotapes.

Follow me to San Francisco. BBC English by Television and the University of San Francisco. (1981). Longman, White Plains, NY.

This is a 60-minute videotape which presents the adventures of an eighteen-year-old boy visiting San Francisco from a small town in Indiana. His life adventures are like those of an immigrant to the USA. There are ten five-minute episodes with each opening with a narrative followed by a dramatization. The conclusion presents questions for the students to discuss about the next episode. There is a student's book and a teacher's manual to go with the video. The tape and textbook would work well with an intermediate level class.

In English. Bourell, R. (1987). Video Language Productions, Los Angeles, CA.

This is a nine tape/lesson video series good for the intermediate ESL student. The lessons begin with either a narrative or a dialog taking place at some point of interest in Los Angeles, (the airport, a university, downtown, etc.). Next, there is a presentation of the vocabulary with pictures. Finally, there is a presentation of pronunciation of the vocabulary with a close-up view of an instructor saying each word. There is a student text to accompany each lesson with exercises designed to be completed before, during, and after the tapes.

Opportunity USA. Chapelle, E. (1989). Office of the Mayor, Los Angeles City Hall, 200 N. Spring Street, Los Angeles, CA, 90012.

This is a combination low level ESL and amnesty education videotape series containing sixty tapes. Several different instructors teach short presentations on various topics in each lesson. Topics are survival English instruction presented with a variety of teaching methodologies. The sixty tapes are available from the Mayor's office, along with a one-page student handout for each lesson. The material is good for low level ESL students even if the are not amnesty candidates.

Phrase by phrase. Chan, Marsha. (1989). Mission College, 3000 Mission College Blvd., Santa Clara, CA. 95054-1897

This series contains sixteen videotapes designed to improve the intermediate/advanced student's pronunciation skills. Each tape begins with a brief narrative or dialog which is followed by specific instructions on vowel and consonant groups and the supra-segmentals. The tapes each have a students' text which has several exercises for the students to do before, during, and after each tape presentation. The students can also purchase audio tapes to accompany the text. There is a teacher's guide available with the tapes.

The tape series was prepared with the aid of United States government-provided funding and is therefore available to all those requesting it for copying. The videotapes are free for copying to any public educational institution that requests them from Marsha Chan.

Speak easy. Silverson, S., Landa, M., & Smith, J. (1982). Longman, White Plains, N.Y.

This is a 60-minute videotape which uses mime as the means of teaching ESL to students. The tape has fourteen skits all performed in familiar settings, with the characters doing everyday activities such as: having a meal in a restaurant, getting medical attention in a doctor's office, and asking help from a stranger. Students observe the characters' actions and guess the language used in the dialogue taking place. There is a students' book which presents nine language functions for each mime, audio tapes and a teacher's guide. The tape can be used with all levels, and in a variety teaching situations.

Stage one. Hollingsworth, P. (1986). Stage One Productions, Anaheim, CA.

These three two-hour videotapes contain twelve 30-minute lessons in which sixty different individuals teach students the sound and meaning of 1000 frequently used words. Each lesson contains seven five-minute segments in which a variety of methods are employed; mime, artist, skit, content lesson, mathematics, field trip, and song. The tapes have a teacher's guide available containing vocabulary lists for the lessons. The material is produced for low level beginning students.

Take over. Algranti, I., & Bonkowski, F. (1986) ERPI Publishers. Canada.

This is a 75-minute presentation aimed at young adult ESL students. Some of the themes include the influence of advertising, attitudes toward the disabled, and nuclear war. There is a user's guide which accompanies the tape. The material is good for group discussion with advanced students.

The job search: A cultural orientation. Tofler-Riesel, R. (1988). Jewish Vocational Service. Boston, MA.

This is a 25-minute videotape containing five skits and interviews based on the process of finding a job in the United States. The intended audience is low level refugees and immigrants. There is a teacher's book accompanying the tape. The tape would be good for a one time viewing, or viewed in segments of one skit at a time.

Teacher Training Videotapes

Not only is there a wide variety of materials available for ESL students, but teacher training videotapes are also available. Teachers can be taught some of the most recent theories of learning and methods of teaching right in the convenience of their own home or office. Many colleges and universities offer courses via videotapes. The following works are a partial list of videotapes currently available.

Annotated Listing:

English teaching with video. BBC English by Radio and Television. (1985). London, England.

This is a tape designed to show the teacher how to effectively use video in the classroom. The tape describes in detail seven simple strategies. There is one thirty minute videotape and a notebook which comes with it. The tape is helpful for American teachers even though it is produced in British English.

ESL Techniques. ESL Teacher Institute. (1988-9). K. Lynn Savage, San Francisco, CA.

This is a series of twelve 15-minute tapes, each focusing on one ESL teaching technique. The topics presented within the tapes include techniques such as dialogues, drills and information gap exercises. The tapes were produced by the ESL Teacher Institute, Association of California School Administrators.

Teaching ESL in the public schools. Brodkey, D. (1989). University of New Mexico.

This is a series of five videotapes of ESL teachers in the Albuquerque public schools. The teachers discuss the teaching techniques used in elementary, middle and high school ESL classes. There are films of actual classes in progress included in the series. Teachers preparing to teach in the public school system would benefit from this material.

Teaching observed. BBC. (1974-5). BBC English by Radio and Television. London, England.

These are documentary films of English classes in six countries in Africa and Asia. Contained within the two 140-minute tapes are sequences of excerpted lessons. The material is useful for preparing teachers for overseas teaching assignments.

Total physical response and the natural approach. Segal, B. (1988). SAVANT. Fullerton, California.

This is a 40-minute tape showing demonstrations of TPR, the Natural Approach, and the Language Experience Approach. The demonstrations are directed toward both the elementary and high school levels. The tape comes with a notebook for the teacher. Teachers unfamiliar with these approaches would benefit from viewing this tape.

Using your hands to teach pronunciation. Chan, M. (1987). Mission College. Santa Clara, CA.

This is a teacher training tape made from scenes from the author's videotape series `Phrase By Phrase' (see section above). Marsha Chan uses her hands to help the students produce the individual sounds, as well as the suprasegmentals she teaches in the taped lessons. The material presented on this tape can be very helpful to a prospective pronunciation teacher looking for good ideas.

CHAPTER 3

THE PRONUNCIATION PICTURES VIDEOTAPE

Rationale For The Pronunciation Pictures Project

Since the theoretical emphasis has changed from accuracy to fluency through the influence of the communicative approach, the pronunciation teaching materials available today on videotape focus on teaching the suprasegmental phonemes and communicative language skills. To be sure, many students benefit from these new emphases and do go on to achieve advanced levels of proficiency. There are other students, however, who do not do so well in classes stressing fluency. These students have problems with particular sounds in the language and require individualized instruction on how to pronounce the English phonemes. Unfortunately, there have been very few authors and video producers seeking to teach students how to pronounce the segmental phonemes.

In an ideal class, perhaps only one or two students in the class struggle to pronounce one or more of the sounds with which the rest of the students may have no difficulty. The teacher in such a situation may not even address the issue in class. In most pronunciation classes, however, this is not usually the case. Each class has such ethnic and language diversity that the problem phonemes are too numerous for the teacher to address each sound individually. The class syllabus is often designed to cover the supra-segmentals and important communicative issues. The students therefore learn general principles, but are not taught how to pronounce the sounds they find problematic.

Not only is the need for instruction on how to pronounce the segmentals not being adequately addressed in the classrooms, but the materials currently available on videotape also do not specifically address the segmentals. The annotated listing of ESL videotapes in the preceding section reveals the lack of material addressing the segmentals. The presentations fail to provide enough detailed instructions for the students to learn the segmentals. There are some video presentations which do address the pronunciation of individual phonemes, such as the Phrase by phrase videotapes, but that is not the main focus of the lessons. Videotape pronunciation lessons for the most part, seek to include a little of everything instead of one main topic. Most pronunciation teachers, as a result, have to refer students with problems to private tutors or to supplemental textbooks.

The Pronunciation Pictures video project has therefore been produced to provide detailed instructions on the pronunciation of the English consonant sounds appearing in initial position. Animated pictures showing the inside of the mouth will be provided to illustrate the production process for the students. After the phoneme has been explained and illustrated, exercises will be presented for the students to do along with the teacher in the form of drills. Each lesson will conclude with a homework assignment for the student to do. Students are told to use a mirror to watch their mouth during the lesson. Also a cassette tape recorder is recommended for the student to use along with the video viewing. The student can thereby listen and compare the two voices after the videotape lesson ends. Students are told to give their teacher the audio cassette tape of their voice for final evaluation.

The producer of this video project considers accurate pronunciation of the English segmental system to be just as important as correct usage of the

suprasegmentals; one area should not receive more attention than the other. When the emphasis was upon segmental accuracy years ago, students may have learned little about stress and intonation; today they learn stress and intonation but not how to produce the sounds. It is hoped that a balance will be reached soon in the field of pronunciation instruction.

The purpose of these lessons is not to replace the pronunciation teacher in a school setting, but rather to provide remedial attention to those students who find the pronunciation of a particular phoneme difficult. The intended recipients of these videotaped lessons are teachers. Having a resource available to provide detailed instructions on individual phonemes, the teacher can evaluate students' needs and then assign a particular tape to be viewed. Student needs thus can be met without consuming the teacher's time.

Rationale For The Lecture Component

The Pronunciation Pictures video project presents students with detailed lectures each addressing the production process involved in pronouncing a particular phoneme correctly. The lectures will be presented while the animated graphics demonstrate the phoneme under consideration. The use of lectures as a technique of instruction has a history as old as teaching itself. Students expect to be informed about a subject by means of a lecture. Every student of a second language has questions about how to pronounce certain phonemes within the target language. Learning by imitation is a part of the process, but detailed analytical explanations are what students often want and need in order to learn correct pronunciation of the language. The order in which the lessons are arranged has been determined

by many factors. The first lesson deals with the /z/ and /s/ contrast so the students will learn the voicing-voiceless distinction from the very start. Upper case letters are used to represent the sounds in each lesson so the students can easily understand. The order of presentation puts the voiced consonant first in every lesson since students find voicing easier to understand than voicelessness. Lesson two presents the /b/ and /p/ contrast focusing on voiceless aspiration. The first three lessons have extra exercises added before the homework assignment so that the students can learn voicing and aspiration well.

The structure of the entire program is designed to allow students to study the lessons in the order they are presented if they so desire. On the other hand, each lesson is laid out so as to be completely independent of the others. Some repetition of important information is presented in each lesson, and yet the content of each lesson presents a new pair of phonemes which are a voiced/voiceless contrast.

The lessons are not intended to be an autonomous replacement of the pronunciation classroom. Therefore, the communicative and contextualized learning techniques popular today are not used in the lessons. These forms of instruction are designed to be interactive with the instructor and are better left to the classroom where maximized effectiveness is achieved.

The techniques used in each lesson have been researched and proven effective in the field (see Techniques section pp. 16-23 above). The presentations are designed for students at the advanced beginner to intermediate level. Each lesson has the same basic presentation format built around the different phonemes being studied. Students will be taken through a step-by-step analysis of what takes place inside the mouth when English is spoken

correctly. Points of articulation are explained with vocabulary the students can understand. The practice exercises are also simplified for low level students to understand. Homework assignments are built around the phonemes under consideration so that the lessons are followed by an application which the students can practice themselves with their own vocabulary.

Rationale For The Minimal Pair Drills

The rationale behind using drills as a major part of the lesson plan is the degree of immediate practice the students receive from doing them. While it is true that drills are not at all communicative, and in most cases lack any contextualization, drills do provide the needed practice in articulatory movements for producing the problematic phoneme.

The use of minimal pairs to teach pronunciation is a proven technique, perhaps used at one time or another by almost every instructor. A minimal pair is a pair of words that are identical except for one phoneme. The meanings differ solely because of the difference in the two distinguishing sounds being focused on. The pairs presented in the videotape lessons will focus on the voiced/voiceless contrast and aspiration.

The methodology for using the minimal pairs moves from listening discrimination exercises, to simple repetition of vocabulary, to presentations of contextualized sentences. The drills appearing in each videotape lesson use this combination of techniques. Students are thus provided the opportunity to develop their listening skill, pronunciation skill, and vocabulary in each lesson.

The documentation provided in the first chapter of this thesis discussed the validity of using drills as a technique of pronunciation instruction. Drills have been used in the classroom for a number of years, and books and articles are always appearing with innovative suggestions for using drills in the classroom. The reason for this is the fact that they do achieve results.

Listening discrimination training is a technique related to the use of pronunciation drills. Listening proficiency is closely connected to speaking proficiency. Kenworthy (1987) writes about the importance of helping students perceive the sounds of English.

> The traditional way of helping someone to perceive sounds according to a new set of categories is to give them plenty of opportunities to hear all the members of the new system. The new sounds should be heard together with the 'familiar' sounds from the mother tongue; two new sounds should be heard together so that the difference between them will be learnt. The sounds should be heard in different combinations, in different sequences and positions. (p. 46)

Students have a tendency to hear sounds according to the sounds of their native language. Students' listening abilities need to be checked and evaluated to insure that all of the sounds are being heard. If certain sounds are not comprehended, the teacher will need to help students build new catagories for the new sounds.

Listening discrimination drills appear in every lesson of the videotape. These drills use the vocabulary of the minimal pairs which are practiced after the listening drills. The students are therefore introduced to the vocabulary aurally and familiarized to the sounds they will later practice.

Rationale For The Animated Pictures

The rationale which justifies the use of the animated visuals seen in each lesson is quite straightforward: the use of visual aids to assist in language teaching, including pronunciation, is a recognized technique among instructors. Drawings of the inside of the mouth are one of the more common of these visual teaching aids. Most students have seen these pictures in books which emphasize pronunciation or on flash cards which the teacher uses in class. Books written to train pronunciation teachers usually have recommendations concerning the use of such drawings in the classroom. Finocchiaro (1974) gives teachers the following instructions concerning the use of diagrams:

> A diagram should be uncluttered and clear. You should learn to sketch the lips, teeth, palate, and tongue on the board. Using dotted lines, indicate the position of the tongue or the movement of the tongue from one sound to another. (p. 56)

The animated graphics seen demonstrating the sounds in the Pronunciation Pictures videotape lessons are called "Sammy diagrams" by linguists such as Smalley (1977). Sammy diagrams are already known to many students due to their common use in textbooks such as Nilsen and Nilsen's (1973) Pronunciation Contrasts In English. Sammy diagrams are recognized among pronunciation instructors as a useful tool.

Animating these commonly used pictures was the next logical step to be taken when the technical equipment for producing animations became more easily accessible to teachers. Students should enjoy some of the fruits of the technology being used in the marketplace today. Television programs use special visual effects in almost every presentation. The education system, however, has not been quick to adopt such resources into the classroom.

Private businesses have produced a limited selection of materials for teachers to access through their school audio-visual departments, but the selection remains limited. The pronunciation instructor who wishes to supplement the classroom instruction has little to select from for the students to take home and study on their own. There are some pronunciation lessons on videotape cassettes for students to study at home, such as the Phrase by phrase and In English videotapes, but these tend to be general presentations of the same nature as what the teacher covers in the classroom. Teachers need a collection of tapes which address specific segmental pronunciation problems the students are struggling with. Such a collection could be accessed by the teacher to provide each student with the individualized instructions necessary. The student could then take the videotape home or to an equipped learning lab and learn the correct pronunciation of a segmental phoneme which is not problematic enough to address in class.

The process involved in creating the animated pictures was not at all difficult. After I received basic training on using an Apple computer, the art and multimedia program HyperStudio by Roger Wagner Publishing was introduced to me. The pictures seen in the videotape lessons were each drawn with the HyperStudio computer program. The diagrams are like those appearing in different pronunciation training textbooks. After the drawings were completed, the animation process was straightforward. Each animation contains a set of five pictures, each with a small variation of movement within the mouth. The pictures are set in order by the computer, which plays them in sequence when instructed to do so.

Putting the animation on the video tape was also an uncomplicated process. To begin, the animations were loaded into the computer using the

HyperStudio program. Next, the video recordings of the lectures were played from a VCR into a device within the computer called a "Video Overlay Card." The Video Overlay Card then placed the animated pictures on top of the video image being played into the computer. A second VCR records the combination produced by the computer.Some difficulty was encountered in synchronizing the animations with the lectures, but multiple copies of the raw footage were made so editing would be easier. Editing the videotape was the final step and the most time consuming. Putting all of the pieces together on one tape is like building a puzzle.

The video recordings of the lecture component were filmed at a facility in the Glendale Community College, T.V. productions department. The scripts were written by myself. The entire project was produced by myself. Others wishing to produce a project similar to this are advised to make it a group effort.

The first lesson was shown to a noncredit, level-two ESL class at the Glendale Community College. The students understood the animations and enjoyed the listening exersizes. They said they understood the explanations I provided on producing the sounds, and felt the lesson was helpful. This application of the materials was done with students already familiar with the way I speak, and may thus not reflect a true evaluation. Nevertheless, I hope the Pronunciation Pictures videotape lessons will help to meet the needs of those students who struggle with learning to pronounce the English language correctly. I also hope teachers will find the lessons a welcome relief from the overwhelming demands of teaching pronunciation.

REFERENCES CITED

Bowen, D. (1972). Contextualizing pronunciation practice in the ESOL classroom. TESOL Quarterly, 6, 86-94.

Burns, I. M. (1987). Teaching pronunciation through listening. TESL Talk, 17, 125-132.

Celce-Murcia, M. (1987). Teaching pronunciation as communication. In J. Morley (Ed.), Current perspectives on pronunciation: Practices anchored in theory (pp. 5-12). Washington, DC: TESOL.

Chomsky, N., & M. Halle. (1968). The sound pattern of English. New York: Harper and Row.

Finocchiaro, M. (1974). English as a second language from theory to practice. New York: Regents.

Firth, S. (1987). Developing self-correcting and self-monitoring strategies. TESL Talk, 17, 148-152.

Gilbert, J. B. (1984). Clear speech. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Haycraft, B. (1971). The teaching of pronunciation. London: Longman.

Jull, D. (1987). Traditional techniques in the teaching of pronunciation. TESL Talk, 17, 118-125.

Kenworthy, J. (1987). Teaching English pronunciation. London: Longman.

Kreidler, C. (1989). The pronunciation of English: A course in phonology. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Lenneberg, E. (1967). The biological foundations of language. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

McNerney, M., & D. Mendelsohn. (1987). Putting suprasegmentals in their place. TESL Talk, 17, 132-140.

Mendelson-Burns, I. (1987). Teaching pronunciation through listening. TESL Talk, 17, 125-31.

Morley, J. (Ed.) (1987). Current prospectives on pronunciation. Washington, DC: TESOL.

Naiman, N. (1987, January). Teaching pronunciation communicatively. TESL Talk, 17, 141-147.

Nilsen, D., & A. Nilsen. (1973). Pronunciation contrasts in English. New York: Regents.

Practor, C., & B. Robinett. (1985). Manual of American English pronunciation (4th ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Richards, J., & T. Rodgers. (1986). Approaches and methods in language teaching. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Schumann, J. H. (1975, June). Affective factors and the problem of age in the second language acquisition. Language Learning, 25, 209-236.

Schumann, J. H. (1976, March). Social distance as a factor in second language acquisition. Language Learning, 26, 135-143.

Scovel, T. (1969, July). Foreign accents, language acquisition, and cerebral dominance. Language Learning, 19, 245-253.

Seliger, H. W., S. D. Krashen, & P. Ladefoged. (1975). Maturational constraints in the acquisition of second language accent. Language Sciences, 36, 20-22.

Sector, B. (1987, September 27). Foreign teachers create language gap in colleges. Los Angeles Times, Part I, pp. 1, 26, 27.

Smalley, W. A. (1977). Manual of articulatory phonetics. Pasadena, CA: William Carey Library.

Stevick, E. W. (1976). Memory meaning & method. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Wardhaugh, R. (1974). Topics in applied linguistics. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Wardhaugh, R. (1972). Introduction to linguistics. New York: McGraw-Hill.